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him all the specific problems and difficulties involved in the actual construction and successful administration of adequate compensation legislation in the United States.

As stated above, the treatment of the subject is thoroughly logical. It begins with a brief discussion of the concrete conditions which make indemnity for work accidents socially desirable. Secondly, the injustice and social inadequacy of the common-law system of compensation are shown by a clear and penetrating account of the genesis, the doctrines, and the practical working of employers' liability. This is followed by a positive statement of the theory of occupational risks which underlies modern compensation legislation. A description and comparison of the German and British systems furnish a demonstration of the typical characteristics and implications of the compensation and insurance plans based on this principle. Finally the constructive problem at home is attacked: first, through a careful analysis, interpretation, and estimate of the compensation laws enacted in the United States; secondly, by an analysis of the report of the Iowa Employers' Liability and Workmen's Compensation Commission appointed in 1911; and thirdly, by a summary consideration of the practical standards of indemnity legislation as derived from the whole previous discussion.

The book is to be especially commended for its suggestive genetic treatment of the existing legal status, for its excellent comparative analysis of legislation in the United States, and particularly for its clear-cut and comprehensive discussion in the chapter on "Standards of Indemnity Legislation" of the principles and practical problems involved.

Along with these excellences there are some minor defects. There is perhaps some radical bias shown in the treatment of the development of common-law liability; here and there the general clearness and incisiveness of style are marred by a hint of ambiguity, and the careful reader is at times somewhat irritated by the fact that the 783 references and footnotes must be consulted at the end of the volume.

The book contains a good table of cases, largely Iowa citations, and a good index.

R. F. HOXIE

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The New Unionism. By ANDRÉ TRIDON. New York: B. W. Huebsch, 1913. 12mo, pp. 198. \$1.00 net.

The fierce strikes at McKees Rocks, Lawrence, and Paterson have brought vividly to the minds of the people of the United States the fact that a new unionism is in our midst. To satisfy the desire for information on the new

movement, the author wrote articles for various papers such as the *New York Sun*, the *New York Tribune*, the *Independent*, the *International*, the *Industrial Worker*, and *Solidarity*. These articles together with additional material were worked over to form this book.

The book contains much unconventional information not found in the archives of our standard economists and many biographies with intimate personal details of men and women whose names do not appear in *Who's Who*. The New Unionism in its general aspects is first treated—what it is not, its principles, and its methods. After these general chapters the progress of the movement in various countries is traced.

The New Unionism is not Anarchism, which is negative and would break down the good of civilization; it is not Trade Unionism, which applies only to the aristocracy of labor and divides the laborers into groups which fight each other as well as the employers; it is not Reformism nor Revolutionary Socialism, both of which are political. The New Unionism is a practice not a theory. It aims to join the workers in one big union, and give them full control of all industries in return for their labor. The New Unionism grows by experimenting. The leaders do not profess to know how the change will come about or how the industrial commonwealth will manage itself. But they have faith that the organization which gains control can also administer.

To attain their ends the New Unionists use direct action of two kinds—strikes and sabotage. They consider employers parasites with no right to exist, who are to be gotten rid of in any way possible. They will not make or keep agreements with employers. They favor short strikes. They oppose large strike funds because they tend to make unions conservative. The general strike is the ideal, but other strikes, though lost, act as tests of strength and as drill and preparation for the general strike. Armies have been used to suppress general strikes, so the New Unionists promote anti-military agitation. Sabotage may be of three kinds: (1) active damaging of goods or machinery, for example, putting acid on goods or emery in the bearings of machines; (2) open-mouthed, the exposing or defeating of fraudulent practices; thus clerks answer questions truthfully or even volunteer information: Paris cooks told of the marvelous but sometimes disgusting methods used in the preparation of food; (3) obstructionism or passive sabotage, carrying out orders literally: the attempt to do this tied up the traffic on the railroads in Austria.

The New Unionism, if we accept the interpretation of the author, is a protean movement, springing up in different countries under different names, and we find here a brief account of the methods and success of the movement in the leading countries of the world.

In the United States, the New Unionism is called Industrialism. After the failure of the National Labor Union and the Knights of Labor, the craft or trade union became the dominant type of organization in this country. Most of these craft unions are united in the American Federation of Labor. The American Railway Union was organized as an industrial union by Debs in 1893,

but lasted only a few years. In 1899, the Western Federation of Miners, another industrial union, was formed. Under its guidance, the Western Labor Union, later called the American Labor Union, was started. The year 1905 marks the birth of the Industrial Workers of the World sponsored by some Socialists, the Western Federation of Miners, and the American Labor Union. After considerable internal contention, the industrial element obtained complete control of the organization in 1908. They favor any tactics that will get the desired results. They are not concerned with questions of right or wrong. They encourage militant, direct action. The Industrial Workers of the World has been involved in strikes in Goldfield, Nev., in 1906; Skowhegan, Me., in 1907; Portland, Ore., in 1907; Goldfield, Nev., in 1907; McKees Rocks, Pa., in 1909; Seattle, Wash., in 1909; Brooklyn, N.Y., in 1911; and Lawrence, Mass., in 1912. Sketches are given of the lives of some of the leaders, namely Vincent St. John, William D. Haywood, Elizabeth G. Flynn, William Trautman, Joseph Ettor, and Arturo Giovannitti. The author thinks that the old craft unionism is declining. In many instances the skilled workers are being replaced by machinery and unskilled labor. Then again the jurisdictional disputes cause them to waste strength fighting among themselves, and often one union "scabs" on another. In the American Federation of Labor, the United Mine Workers and the Brewery Workers are industrial unions and the Building Trades and the Metal Trades have been organized into departments, a step toward the industrial form of organization. The American Federation of Labor is also starting a campaign to organize the unorganized workers, especially the foreigners.

In the final chapter on the Influence of the New Unionism on Modern Thought, the author denies flatly the statement that the movement has its basis in some of the modern philosophers. He insists that it is a mass movement directed by militants within the movement and that the New Unionists do not even know the names of these philosophers to whom the movement is often attributed. Bergson is all theory, Syndicalism is all practice. Tridon is especially harsh in treating of Sorel whom he accuses of having reformists' views, of asserting that the general strike is myth, and of holding traditional views of sexual ethics; thus showing that the Frenchman has not furnished the philosophical basis for the movement.

The Country Church. By C. O. GILL and GIFFORD PINCHOT. New York: Macmillan, 1913. 8vo, pp. 222. \$1.25 net.

This volume by Charles O. Gill and Gifford Pinchot presents the first scientific study of the country church: the decline of its influence, and the remedy. The three questions the authors raise are: (1) Is the church growing or declining in power? (2) Is it doing the work which belongs to it? (3) Is it as influential an agent for the improvement of country life as it should be; if not, how can it regain the position it once held?